Journal of Medical Genetics (1973). 10, 396-399.

Alport's Syndrome

Sir,

In your issue of March 1973 I read with great interest a paper 'Segregation ratios in Alport's syndrome' by E. MacNeill and R. F. Shaw. This paper considered pooled data from 35 published pedigrees and drew the conclusion that these data do not support the hypotheses of dominant partially sex-linked inheritance, sex-limited dominant autosomal inheritance, or autosomal dominant inheritance with distorted segregation. While this may well be true, it should be noted that the 35 pedigrees are in several ways heterogeneous and hence pooling them is a questionable procedure.

- 1. Data from a paper by McConville, West, and McAdams (1966) are included. These authors state 'The familial type [of benign haematuria] was distinguished from Alport's syndrome... by lack of nephritis in the family, a benign clinical course, and renal biopsy. The mode of inheritance appeared to be autosomal dominant.' Their data should be excluded.
- 2. Even omitting McConville et al's nine pedigrees, the data of McNeill and Shaw's Table I are not homogeneous. Considering only the seven pedigrees of Cassady et al (1965) (which included five previously published by Cohen, Cassady, and Hanna [1961]) we can look at the sex ratio in the offspring of affected males and females, as set out here in Table I.

Testing the data of Table I for homogeneity,

 $\chi_{18}^2 = 40.7805$ with 0.01 > p > 0.001.

TABLE I

SEX RATIO IN CHILDREN OF AFFECTED PARENTS
IN FIVE PEDIGREES OF COHEN et al (1961) AND
TWO OF CASSADY et al (1965)

Pedigree	Offspring of Affected Males		Offs; Affected	Totals	
	Males	Females	Males	Females	
1 2 3 4 5 6	3 1 6 40 30 8 6	7 3 7 27 29 10 4	30 13 9 38 37 9 6	27 10 13 50 31 12 8	67 27 35 155 127 39 24
Totals	94	87	142	151	474

Hence, these data are heterogeneous among pedigrees with respect to at least one of the comparisons implicit in MacNeill and Shaw's Table I and so cannot validly be pooled.

3. From the same two papers, it is possible to make the following comparison:

	Males			Females			
	Deaf- ness Only	Renal Dis- ease Only	Deaf- ness and Renal Disease	Deaf- ness Only	Renal Dis- ease Only	Deaf- ness and Renal Disease	Totals
Cohen et al (1961)	5	51	31	2	92	24	205
Cassady et al (1965)	9	24	26	21	18	20	118
Totals	14	75	57	23	110	44	323

These groups are not homogeneous ($\chi_5^2 = 61.0$, p < 0.001) but the high frequency of deaf males and females may be contrasted with other data as in Table II.

As not all the authors cited in Table II tested all possible members of each pedigree for deafness (eg, Patton

TABLE II

NUMBERS OF INDIVIDUALS MANIFESTING
DEAFNESS ONLY AS AGAINST RENAL DISEASE
ONLY OR DEAFNESS PLUS RENAL DISEASE IN
10 SURVEYS

I F	Males	Females	
Deaf Only	Other Affected	Deaf Only	Other Affected
5	82	2	116
9	50	21	38 23
0		0	
0		2	7
0			13
0	4	0	7
6	15	0	23
1	10	1	13
4	13	6	17 8
	5 9 0 0 0 0 6	Only Affected 5 82 9 50 0 10 0 8 0 16 0 4 6 15 1 10	Only Affected Only 5 82 2 9 50 21 0 10 0 0 8 2 0 16 0 0 4 0 6 15 0 1 10 1

TABLE III SIBSHIP SIZE IN THE PEDIGREES OF COHEN et al (1961) AND CASSADY et al (1965)

	Offspring of 1	Normal Females	Offspring of Normal Males		
Mean ± SE No. of sibships	(a) All normal 2.33 ± 0.18	(b) Some affected 4.17 ± 0.67	(c) All normal 2·32 ± 0·20 38	(d) Some affected 5.00 ± 0.73	
	Offspring of Affected Females		Offspring of Affected Males		
Mean ± SE No. of sibships	(e) All normal 2.08 ± 0.26 13	(f) Some affected 4·40 ± 0·33 78	(g) All normal 2.62 ± 0.40 12	(h) Some affected 3·25 ± 0·24 59	

[1970] did not) and because some appear to have different proportions from others of very young affected individuals (who would not be old enough to manifest progressive hearing loss), it is not appropriate to perform a further test, but nonetheless there is again evidence of heterogeneity among families.

4. MacNeill and Shaw stated that one of their purposes was to 'investigate reproductive fitness of the abnormal genotype' and for this purpose they needed 'pedigrees uniformly suitable for comparison with US census data'. As the pedigrees are heterogeneous, pooling for this purpose may be inappropriate, but interesting results are obtainable from the pedigrees of Cohen et al (1961) and Cassady et al (1965).

If the sibships in the pedigrees are classified thus:

Mothers or fathers: normal or abnormal

Offspring: all normal or some abnormal

then Table III can be derived (having first shown that sibship sizes do not differ between pedigrees, unlike sex ratio and expression as discussed in 1 and 2 above; these analyses are not presented for reasons of brevity).

In Table III, the following sibship size differences are significant at the 0.1% level:

(a) and (b)

(c) and (d)

The following sibship size difference is significant at the 1% level:

(f) and (h)

The following sibship size differences are significant at the 5% level:

(e) and (f)

(g) and (h)

The following sibship size differences are not significant at the 5% level:

(a) and (c)

(b) and (d)

(e) and (g)

The difference between (g) and (h) might be expected if there is differential viability for the two sexes during the reproductive period, but the generally smaller all normal families suggest some kind of bias in ascertainment or sampling, so that these pedigree data may be unsuitable for examination of fertility differences. I have discussed this point elsewhere (Mayo, 1969/70).

As noted above, the data may well not fit any of the three suggested modes of inheritance; but if so, this may be because not all cases of Alport's syndrome have the same genetical component in their aetiology. The analyses presented here tend to lend support to the existence of such genetical heterogeneity.

Yours, etc,

O. Mayo

Biometry Section. Waite Agricultural Research Institute, University of Adelaide, Glen Osmond, Australia

REFERENCES

Antonovych, T. T., Deasy, P. F., Tina, L. U., D'Albora, J. B., Hollerman, C. E., and Calcagno, P. L. (1969). Hereditary nephritis: early clinical, functional and morphological studies. *Pediatric* Research, 3, 545-556.

Cassady, G., Brown, K., Cohen, M., and DeMaria, W. (1965). Hereditary renal dysfunction and deafness. Pediatrics, 35, 967-

Cohen, M. M., Cassady, G., and Hanna, B. L. (1961). A genetic study of hereditary renal dysfunction with associated nerve deafness. American Journal of Human Genetics, 13, 379-389.

McConville, J. M., West, C. D., and McAdams, A. J. (1966). Familial and non-familial benign hematuria. Journal of Pediatrics, 69, 207-214.

MacNeill, E. and Shaw, R. F. (1973). Segregation ratios in Alport's

syndrome. Journal of Medical Genetics, 10, 23-26.
Mayo, O. (1969/70). On the maintenance of polymorphisms having

an inviable homozygote. Annals of Human Genetics, 33, 307-317.

Mulrow, P. J., Aron, A. M., Gathman, G. E., Yesner, R., and Lubs,
H. A. (1963). Hereditary nephritis. American Journal of Medicine, 35, 737-748.

Opitz, J. (1962). Genetic aspects of hereditary renal disease. Hereditary, Development and Immunological Aspects of Kidney Disease, ed. by J. Metcoff. Annual Conference on the Kidney, No. 13. North-Western University Press, Evanston, Ill.

Patton, R. B. (1970). Chronic hereditary nephritis with nerve deafness; a Nebraska kindred. Annals of Otology, Rhinology and

Laryngology, 79, 194-202. Perkoff, G. T., Nugent, C. A., Jr., Dolowitz, D. A., Stephens, F. E., Carnes, W. H., and Tyler, F. H. (1958). A follow-up study of hereditary chronic nephritis. Archives of Internal Medicine, 102, 733-746.

Shaw, R. F. and Glover, R. A. (1961). Abnormal segregation in hereditary renal disease with deafness. American Journal of Human Genetics, 13, 89-97. Sturtz, G. S. and Burke, E. C. (1958). Syndrome of hereditary

hematuria, nephropathy and deafness. Proceedings of the Staff Meetings of the Mayo Clinic, 33, 289-297.

Wasserman, E., Schwarz, F., Wachstein, M., and Lange, K. (1965). Diagnostic value of serum complement determination in hereditary glomerulonephritis. Journal of Laboratory and Clinical Medicine, Sir,

Mr Mayo is probably right when he says that MacNeill and I should not have included the pedigrees of McConville, West, and McAdams, but there is no certainty in such matters at present, because the current definition of Alport's syndrome may be too restrictive or too inclusive. In any case, the general thesis that one should not pool pedigrees with different characteristics is not persuasive. What MacNeill and I set out to do was to pool a number of pedigrees, admittedly somewhat different among themselves, to see whether abnormal ratios are observable in the totals, and whether they fit the explanation of Shaw and Glover. I cannot see the harm in pooling pedigrees for this purpose. In biological studies if we waited until our materials were free of unexplained variation, we would never be able to begin.

Mr Mayo has shown by statistical test that pedigrees for the syndrome are heterogeneous. I think that is The pedigrees analysed by Glover and myself showed differences in some of their ratios. I know of an unpublished pedigree in which deafness is absent, but the other manifestations, including abnormal segregation, are present. It does, indeed, appear that Alport's syndrome is quite variable, both among members of a family and among pedigrees. It has never seemed to me urgent to demonstrate this variability statistically, as I could not see that such a demonstration would show anything very illuminating. Probably pedigrees of all hereditary diseases are heterogeneous for reasons of genetic modification and environmental influences. Alport's syndrome is clearly more variable than many. Hence statistical proof of heterogeneity among the pedigrees does not constitute an advance in knowledge unless some pattern can be shown. Is the variation continuous? bimodal? dichotonous? (Professor Clarke Fraser has suggested to me that there may be two kinds of Alport's syndrome with and without the abnormal ratios.) Are there correlations with climate or diet, or with ethnic origin? Are severity of symptoms and degree of abnormal segregation correlated? I am inclined to suppose that the cause of the disease is a chromosomal rearrangement and that in different families the break points are different or different linked modifiers are at work. But that is only speculation. Dietary effects, observed by Alport, remain to be followed up.

Mayo's finding of larger family size when a parent is affected strikes me as surprising and interesting. It is not entirely clear why he thinks it is an artefact, but in any event, it neither supports nor refutes anything MacNeill and I have claimed. We did not calculate any fitness values. The phrase about our interest in reproductive fitness which Mayo quotes is taken out of a sentence which says that one of our *initial* purposes was to investigate this subject. But in fact we abandoned that plan. The plan was mentioned in the paper by way of explaining why only pedigrees from the US were analysed.

Incidentally, I still think the Shaw and Glover explanation of this disease is by far the best available, and I regret now that MacNeill and I acquiesced at the instance

of one of the assessors and toned down the conclusions given in the summary. The Shaw and Glover hypothesis is still in the running, but our summary appears to say that we favour no hypothesis. It seems to me better science to put forward strongly the best hypothesis available and see if other workers are stimulated to disprove it or to find a more appealing one. The alternative may be a rather dull and self-congratulatory consensus that nothing is known and nothing can be.

Yours, etc, Richard F. Shaw

Department of Epidemiology, University of Sherbrooke, Ouebec, Canada.

The Crouzon Syndrome

Sir,

We strongly object to the diagnosis of craniofacial dysostosis (Crouzon syndrome) in the two sibs reported recently by Juberg and Chambers (1973). Despite the shallow orbits present in both patients, the lack of proptosis rules out the Crouzon syndrome, which is characterized *minimally* by craniosynostosis, midface hypoplasia, and shallow orbits with secondary proptosis (Cohen, 1973). Occasionally, craniosynostosis may even be absent, as in several affected family members reported by Shiller (1959).

The Crouzon syndrome follows an autosomal dominant mode of transmission with complete penetrance and variable expressivity. The possibility of genetic heterogeneity should always be kept in mind. However, that an autosomal recessive form of the Crouzon syndrome exists still remains to be shown.

The patients reported by Juberg and Chambers (1973) represent an isolated form of craniosynostosis, consistent with autosomal recessive inheritance. One of us (M.M.C.) has also observed several instances of affected sibs with isolated craniosynostosis.

Yours, etc, Kenneth L. Jones and M. Michael Cohen, Jr.

Departments of Pediatrics and Orthodontics, Schools of Medicine and Dentistry, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington, USA.

REFERENCES

Cohen, M. M., Jr. (1973). An etiologic and nosologic overview of craniosynostosis syndromes. Birth Defects: Original Article Series. (In press.)

Juberg, R. C. and Chambers, S. R. (1973). An autosomal recessive form of craniofacial dysostosis (the Crouzon syndrome). *Journal of Medical Genetics*, **10**, 89-93.

Shiller, J. G. (1959). Craniofacial dysostosis of Crouzon: a case report and pedigree with emphasis on heredity. *Pediatrics*, 23, 107-112.